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U. S. Naval Seaplane R-6 Dropping a Dummy Torpedo

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VOL. X, NO. 14

INDEX TO CONTENTS

Editorials	423	Schenck Cup Race	434
The Development of Aircraft	424	Leading Field at Coney Island	434
New Tarleton Record	425	Balloon Racing	435
The Handley Page Wing	427	Books, Reviews	436
Canada's Air Ports	429	Bois of Second Pulitzer Trophy Race	436
Civil Service Examinations	430	California Aero News	436
Moscow Camera in Airplane	431	Wash Air Mail	436
"Who's Who in American Aeroplanes"	431	San Francisco Aerial Day	436
U. S. G. A. N. Ground Attack Airplane	431	Foreign Air Officers Training in U. S.	438
Naval Officers Training Camp	431		

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No. 34

The Handley Page Wing

It is a paper read before the Royal Aeronautical Society of the United Kingdom, Mr. Handley Page has finally given to the world the results of work based on the mathematics which has come to be known as the Handley Page wing.

It would seem quite definitely established that by the use of slots in a wing the lift coefficient can be appreciably increased. With the latest type of slot as R. A. F. 5 section has had its lift increased some 50 per cent; with the slots open, while the lift/drag coefficient of the same wing dropped from 18.5 to 16.1. For the R. A. F. 15 section an increase of 61 per cent in the lift was obtained, but the lift/drag ratio was spent at high speed angles. Further results are expected from the effect of a number of slots, but it would already seem that the experiments are extremely promising. The variation in lift obtainable by the system of slots seems to be far greater than that possible with variable camber arrangements. The variable camber increase of 25 per cent in the maximum lift is apparently all that can be expected.

Although the mechanical difficulties of the Handley Page wing may be slightly greater than those obtained with variable camber, the enormous increase in lift achieved is bound to have a tremendous value in design and therefore warrants continued experimentation along this line.

Reactive Propulsion Aera

The subject of reactive propulsion has recently received a new impetus from the investigations conducted by various American, French and English inventors. The idea of using the explosive reaction to drive the airplane forward without the interference of pistons, connecting rods, crankshafts and propellers has attracted the imagination in simplicity and ease. However, the difficulties that will be encountered in practice along this line of thought are very great, for the efficiency of the combustible is very low if its speed is compared with that of the airplane.

It is possible that by discharging the surrounding air together with the combustible, the greater quantity of gas at a lower speed might drive the reactive propulsion system a greater efficiency. However, this too, it appears as if the subject would require a great deal of investigation and experimentation before practical fruition can be expected with any assurance of probability.

Gasoline and Instrument Leads

It has recently been suggested that gasoline and instrument leads which will be used outside the fuselage in the plane's cockpit in single-engine airplanes, so as to ensure maximum accessibility. It is believed that this idea, which has considerable practical possibilities, originated with Maj. L. B. Kent.

Everything that tends to simplify the construction of the power plant is of value to aircraft. At the same time it would seem that in some cases the solution would be a cheap one, with lots cut in the fuselage in convenient places and two narrow leads and even introduced in the leads. The value of this method would depend on a considerable extent on the nature of each particular design in which it would be incorporated.

Development of Military Aircraft

It is some short years since AVIATION AND AIRCRAFT JOURNAL first appeared, since information regarding the characteristics of the armed law classes of war aircraft which the Engineering Division of the Air Service is studying with a view to their being made ready for production in a war emergency. Among the newer types may be mentioned airplanes for night pursuit, armed ground pursuit, two-seater pursuit, all of which are associated by changed conditions of aerial warfare. Just as the early observation plane of 1914 brought about the creation of the fighter or pursuit airplane of 1915 for the purpose of preventing enemy observation, so the night fighters and armed ground attack airplanes of 1920 are now being considered by night pursuit and armed ground pursuit machines.

It is the old naval battle of heavy armor and gun fire against speed, mobility and light, speeded against which is being revealed in the air. But now the position is an armed aircraft in a state of flux. Lessons are difficult to draw, mainly because the Great War ended at about the time new types of military aircraft, such as heavy bombardment, ground attack and night pursuit machines, were beginning to be employed. These new ones, however, sufficiently continuous to lead to clearly defined developments.

For instance, there is a much uncertainty as to whether the day pursuit machine should be a single-seater or a two-seater. The advantages of the single-seater point out its necessarily superior performance with respect to the two-seater, while the difficulties of the latter emphasize the single-seater's total lack of protection against gun fire from the rear, all its guns pointing forward. Another instance, that of the armed ground pursuit machine, which is interesting and instructive. As this type is to be used against heavily armed and gunned ground attack multi-seaters, machine gun fire will prove ineffective to do more than kind damage; the ground pursuit machine must therefore also carry a cannon. But the weight of the latter together with that of the armor is so great that the fuel supply provides only for 15 to 20 minutes flight and it may be questioned whether such a lack of operating radius would not prove a serious handicap in fighting a continuous campaign. It would seem that, given the most armor and gun fire, more mobility would avoid the armed ground pursuit airplane little if it is loaded in its existing roles.



The Development of Aircraft

With Special Reference to the Zeppelin Airships

By P. Jazay

Translated by Steve Tomasi, Aeronautical Engineer, Bureau of Construction and Repair, Navy Department

All of the more recent surveys of the development of aircraft apparently regard the late war as the most important period of this development. It cannot be overlooked, however, that advances in the construction of aircraft, so far as they relate to a product intended for attack and defense—that is, as far as they have been in contrast with which are clearly based up with the demands which were made on aircraft as a weapon—have only a limited indication in the development of aircraft for transportation.

For example, the essential qualities of military aircraft, good climbing ability, good maneuvering power and consistently high speed, play either as part or in a rare case a transport aircraft. Likewise those special construction characteristics of fighting aircraft, which have caused them to develop in

the advanced development between the action of Prandtl's Efficiency, Coefficient of Resistance, and of Lift (L) lead to Weight Empty, which have up to the time been most important in design work, must be regarded as the most important characteristics.

If P is the proper thrust in kilograms at a speed of v in meters per second, and at the normal angle α per cent with corresponding power N in hp, then the efficiency η of the propeller and engine is

$$\eta = \frac{Pv}{735N} \quad (1)$$

If q is the coefficient of resistance corresponding to a surface F in sq meters (or a plane of area F in sq meters) and an air density of ρ in kg per cubic meter, the resistance of an airship is

$$W_r = \frac{1}{2} \rho v^2 F C_x \quad (2)$$

or of an airship

$$W_r = \frac{1}{2} \rho v^2 F C_x \quad (3)$$

(F = the volume of the airship)

For the condition of equilibrium $P = W_r$

$$\eta = \frac{Pv}{735N} = \frac{1}{2} \rho v^2 F C_x \quad (4)$$

$$\eta = \frac{1}{2} \rho v^2 F C_x \quad (5)$$

$$\eta = \frac{1}{2} \rho v^2 F C_x \quad (6)$$

Thus a resistance coefficient taken alone does not permit of a comparison of airships and airplanes since the same coefficient C_x and P are actually shown for practical reasons, but nevertheless differently. It does show, however, in a remarkably clear manner, and within each of the two types of aircraft, the aerodynamic quality of the forms chosen for the same, offering resistance to the air, as well as the degree of efficiency of moving and propelling.

A comparison between the aerodynamic coefficients of airships and airplanes can be obtained by the introduction of equivalent resistance surface area of such a comparison, in view of the different role of the airship hull and airplane wing, is not entirely accurate. As a guide of interest, such a comparison will be made here, in which

$$\eta = \frac{Pv}{735N} \quad (7)$$

will appear as an aerodynamic coefficient, in which η is the coefficient of resistance based on the projected area and P is the projected area in square meters. (In the case of both airships and airplanes the "projected area" means the area of the projection of all parts in the direction of motion.)

The Ratio of Lifted Load to Weight Empty as a specific Useful Load Carrying Ability η is derived from the above last condition

$$\eta = \frac{A}{G} = \frac{A}{G_{\text{gross}} + G_{\text{empty}}} \quad (8)$$

in which A = Gross Lift
 G = Total Load
 G_{empty} = Weight Empty

(All in kilograms or tons, metric)
From this by dividing through by G we obtain

$$\eta = \frac{A}{G} = \frac{A}{G} = 1 \quad (9)$$

April 5, 1933

AVIATION

425

For airships

$$\eta = \frac{Pv}{735N} = 1 \quad (10)$$

where v is the air lift in kilograms per cubic meter, which for 0°C and 760 mm barometric, with some margin content and a specific gravity ρ referred to air) of the airship gas, has the value

$$\rho = 1.293 (0.000000 - 0) \quad (11)$$

(The figure 0.000000 corresponds to a mean relative humidity

more necessary in operation. In this both qualities would apply to the same period. Such a profit comparison can be determined satisfactorily only after very broad assumptions and simplifications. Even then the difficulties would remain which are involved at present, partly by the war-torn industry standard and partly by rising wages and prices.

It should again be borne in mind for the estimation of the probabilities of does not seem practical to refer to the wages and prices of 1914, as probably these will never be met with again. Moreover, the present conditions are in part to be regarded as not better than many of the present prices have been leveled up (mainly) high on account of the increased value of business. For these reasons in the following derivation certain price equivalents will be assumed so that certain relations will follow, which can be assumed as probably in the future if no further depression occurs.

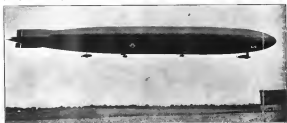


FIG. 1. THE POWER CURVES, NAVAL AIRSHIP L-72 (RIGID), IN THE LATEST DESIGN, BASED ON THE

of 0.50 at 0°C for resistance gas and air, and 760 mm barometric).

For airplanes

$$\eta = \frac{Pv}{735N} = 1 \quad (12)$$

and hence

$$\eta = \frac{Pv}{735N} = 1 \quad (13)$$

in which η is the special lift coefficient of the wings for the most economical flight.

From the two coefficients $\frac{P}{G}$ or $\frac{P}{G_{\text{empty}}}$ and η is derived a third most useful coefficient of comparison or figure of merit

$$\eta = \frac{P}{G} = \frac{P}{G_{\text{empty}}} \quad (14)$$

or

$$\eta = \frac{P}{G} = \frac{P}{G_{\text{empty}}} \quad (15)$$

This originates from a somewhat arbitrary combination of two factors which hardly have a real relation to one another, but it makes it possible to show in a simple expression the stages of development undergone by the aircraft in question from both the aerodynamic and structural point of view. In the most extreme case (1) where, with the greatest useful load which can be moved through the air using the smallest fixed weight with the least propulsive efficiency and smallest coefficient of resistance. In this it serves as a measure of the suitability of the forms and methods of construction chosen in building aircraft—consequently the degree of their economical performance.

To reproduce the development from an extreme point of view in such a manner, if not impossible. It is obvious that one can express the degree of profitability by a coefficient, which is the ratio of the possible increase in the expansion

guided as not better than many of the present prices have been leveled up (mainly) high on account of the increased value of business. For these reasons in the following derivation certain price equivalents will be assumed so that certain relations will follow, which can be assumed as probably in the future if no further depression occurs.

(The further progress of the currency depreciation—since the completion of the construction in the fall of 1918—makes the figures assumed less exact and costs appear too low in even case. In reality however the absolute value of money has no interest effect on the results of the following comparison.)

If X is the per cent of loss of aerial expansion of an air result in a given time (paid conveniently per hour), $\frac{1}{2}$ the rate per kilogram per ton of paying costs, then the income per hour is

$$X = 2.6 \frac{1}{2} (1 - X) \quad (16)$$

where X is the paying costs in tons, $\frac{1}{2}$ the air speed in kilometers per hour, $\frac{1}{2}$ the volume of the load in kg in the ground speed.

To get an idea of the magnitude of X it can be assumed that to leave an airship in construction for repairs, raising, etc.—based on such time it required to a series of repairs in flight. On the basis of experience in operating the Zeppelin Hindenburg it would be set at 0.5. At that time the ship was the only ship of its type in the world. In the first two months of operation it made 75 trips averaging 6 hours duration or approximately 450 operating hours. But the ship must be regarded as not utilized to the full, with respect to time, as a result of the short trip classes (Frankfurt-Berlin-Berlin) and because it did not only once daily (although it could easily have returned on the same day in which case it would have been 0.6). Consequently, and without being unduly optimistic, a value of $X = 0.5$ may be safely assumed for later periods, when operation with several ships allows a balance in schedules.

To reproduce the development, however, right flying is actually one of the questions. Even with multipurpose machine specially designed for use under some circumstances, which, with



FIG. 2. THE POWER CURVES, NAVAL AIRSHIP L-72 (RIGID), IN THE LATEST DESIGN, BASED ON THE

vertical definite direction, have to be transported in a small space, a factor which is partly avoided and which adds to the expense besides only a hindrance, and in no case a gain.

Consequently, in what follows the development of a result will be considered only from the point of view of its practical use as a means of travel or transportation without regard to its use as a weapon. As a means from there will be provided the means, which the development of aircraft has followed thus far, the share it has now reached and what the prospects of further development appear to be. In this there will appear a clear distinction between that of the world's air, and that of a ship.

Characteristics of the Development

To characterize the development of a means out to that, in comparison with the technical side, the non-technical coefficients derived from the general conditions of equilibrium and, in connection with the economic side, a strong formula which, although by no means perfect and universal in its application, at least affords a basis for the estimation of success.

(A) Derivation of the Coefficients

These coefficients naturally may be stated from various points of view:

From Technical Airship Engineering and Wirtschaftliche Luftverkehr (See 11 and 12 Vol. 3)

the still imperfect methods of communications, might at night lead to a long period. Of the remaining data about half would be lost in darkness and misinterpretation. For this it is of course often possible to not put the hands of self-reliant individuals such as log, battery room, and moon. The unexpected occurrence of such aviation night blindness interferes with scheduled flying time. Consequently, under the most favorable conditions the value of N can be taken as 0.2. Based on experience to date with regular manual services—to be sure most exceptional—there would be obtained barely the half of this figure so that $N = 0.2 \times 0.5$ a substantial improvement of the flying service and its efficiency is secured.

For ease of comparison the total figure of 10 minutes is assumed as a rule for one kilometer. (This is about 25% to 30% the rate for first class express trains if one refers to rate for the same speed.) From this data results:

For aeroplanes $N = 25 \cdot (F \div W)$ (27)
 and for dirigibles $N = 15 \cdot (F \div W)$ (28)
 The expenditure per hour consists of: (1) the amount to be written off for the aircraft and its share of the fuel and for the power plant with spare parts, (2) the salaries of officials and operating personnel, (3) the wages of laborers, helpers and landing parties, (4) the expenditures for repairs, maintenance, insurance, rent, advertising, etc. as well as (5) the cost of loss.

If these hourly expenditures are referred on the one hand to the power N of the aircraft in hp and on the other to the weight W in tons, there results—based on somewhat underestimated wages and rates—the figures given in the following table I.

TABLE I

Hourly expenditures for	Aeroplanes	Dirigibles
Wages of the aircraft and its share of fuel	40 (100)	40 (100)
Wages of officials & operating personnel	10 (25)	10 (25)
Wages of laborers, helpers, landing parties	10 (25)	10 (25)
Repairs and maintenance, insurance, rent, advertising, etc.	10 (25)	10 (25)
Loss	10 (25)	10 (25)
as a whole are at a total per hp per hour	80 (200)	80 (200)
the same for dirigibles	100 (250)	100 (250)
Total	100 (250)	100 (250)

Note: The charges for costs of fuel and engine parts are not included in this table. The cost of fuel is not included in the table as it varies so much with the type of engine and the type of aircraft that it is not possible to include it in the table.

From the foregoing table it follows:

For aeroplanes $N = 0.4W + 20$ (29)
 and for dirigibles $N = 0.3W + 20$ (30)
 With these assumptions (29 & 30) the economic coefficient thus becomes:

for aeroplanes $W = 2.5(F \div W)$ (31)
 and for dirigibles $W = 1.6(F \div W)$ (32)
 or for aeroplanes $W = 0.4W + 20$ (33)
 and for dirigibles $W = 0.3W + 20$ (34)

Note: More generally—dependent on the length of journey and rate:

for aeroplanes $W = (0.13 + 1.44Z)N + 40$ (35-a)
 and for dirigibles $W = (0.13 + 1.96Z)N + 70$ (35-b)
 where $Z = 1 \div (F \div W)$ (35-c)
 or $W = (0.13 + 1.44Z)N + 40$ (35-d)
 and for dirigibles $W = (0.13 + 1.96Z)N + 70$ (35-e)

It is to be stated that for aeroplanes, the carrying load Z must be brought into proper relation to the useful load N . Otherwise a shifting of the economic coefficient in favor of one or the other type of aircraft will occur because of the arbitrary distribution of the damaged weights. From equation (35) and (35-c) it can be seen that, for aeroplanes, the economic coefficient for that aircraft which needs no fuel and no operating personnel, or carries only a very small amount of fuel for the journey, decreases, decreases, decreases and not reached such a point that the useful load remains

undisturbed by the weight of crew and fuel. Consequently, the curve corresponds to what remains after the useful load has been diminished by the weight of fuel, officers, crew, reserve parts, stores and ballast. Finally, with the same expenses for officers and their personnel that aircraft will be the more economical which has to make the smallest number of landings to take on fuel, or, in other words, the one with the relatively greatest radius of action. On the other hand the economic coefficient grows directly with the saving made. Therefore, the maximum in any run is reached if the weight of the fuel supply Q is equal to the weight Z . Therefore it:

$$Q = Z + D + Z \quad (36)$$

in which Z is the total weight of the officers, crew, reserve parts, provisions and ballast, and

$$D = \frac{W}{N} \quad (37)$$

then $Z = \frac{W}{N}(Q - Z)$ (38)
 In this the following assumption can be made for the weight Q (see below):

TABLE II

	Weight of	aircraft	airplane
Officers	10	10	10
Crew	10	10	10
Reserve parts	10	10	10
Stores, Ballast and "Stow-away"	10	10	10

In this the number of engines is indicated as it is dependent upon the power of the individual engine N as that:

$$N = \frac{W}{K} \quad (39)$$

where

$$K = \frac{1}{N} [Q - \frac{1}{N} (20N^2 + 0.1Z + 100N + 0.1Z)] \quad (40)$$

or

$$N = \frac{1}{K} [Q - \frac{1}{N} (20N^2 + 0.1Z + 100N + 0.1Z)] \quad (41)$$

And finally

$$1.5 [Q - \frac{1}{N} (20N^2 + 0.1Z + 100N + 0.1Z)] (F \div W) \quad (42)$$

A further reference was made later as to the paper: "The critical value at which the 'fire' ray leaves the plane lies in the case of planes of high speed, and the latter accordingly do not have such maximum values as the planes of lower speed, but:

"With planes of high speed rays leave the plane at a distance of 10 to 20 ft. from the edge of the plane and do not act as a link between the plane and the stream, and therefore the 'fire stream' leaves the plane back at an earlier stage than in the case of the planes of lower speed."

In Fig. 1 is the set of curves reproduced from the 1931 paper, showing the pressure on aeroplanes as a function of the speed of the stream. It will be observed that the square root of the speed V is 1 constant being used to derive values for the speed of the stream and 2.5 ft. (1.6 m) is used for the "fire" ray leaving the plane at 10 to 20 ft. from the edge of the plane. If, then, it was possible to convert the high speed into a low speed, the curves would be the same and the same would be the same.

With the data upon the total "W" on the plane was slightly increased and the "bubble" took place at 14 deg instead of 12 deg (see Fig. 3).

In a paper read before the Royal Aeronautical Society, the author stated that the pressure on aeroplanes was a function of the speed of the stream. It will be observed that the square root of the speed V is 1 constant being used to derive values for the speed of the stream and 2.5 ft. (1.6 m) is used for the "fire" ray leaving the plane at 10 to 20 ft. from the edge of the plane. If, then, it was possible to convert the high speed into a low speed, the curves would be the same and the same would be the same.

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The Handley Page Wing *

By F. Handley Page

The present paper is a record of experimental work carried out with a view to overcoming the phenomenon of "buckling" in wings. It is based on the results of tests carried out at the Handley Page Aeroplane Works, Ltd., in 1931 and 1932. The results are given in the form of graphs and tables, and are intended to show the effect of various factors on the buckling of wings. The results are given in the form of graphs and tables, and are intended to show the effect of various factors on the buckling of wings.

engine rated at 1,100 h.p. and 1,100 h.p. This aircraft was tested at the National Physical Laboratory at a speed of 80, 90, 100, 110, 120, 130, 140, 150, 160, 170, 180, 190, 200, 210, 220, 230, 240, 250, 260, 270, 280, 290, 300, 310, 320, 330, 340, 350, 360, 370, 380, 390, 400, 410, 420, 430, 440, 450, 460, 470, 480, 490, 500, 510, 520, 530, 540, 550, 560, 570, 580, 590, 600, 610, 620, 630, 640, 650, 660, 670, 680, 690, 700, 710, 720, 730, 740, 750, 760, 770, 780, 790, 800, 810, 820, 830, 840, 850, 860, 870, 880, 890, 900, 910, 920, 930, 940, 950, 960, 970, 980, 990, 1000, 1010, 1020, 1030, 1040, 1050, 1060, 1070, 1080, 1090, 1100, 1110, 1120, 1130, 1140, 1150, 1160, 1170, 1180, 1190, 1200, 1210, 1220, 1230, 1240, 1250, 1260, 1270, 1280, 1290, 1300, 1310, 1320, 1330, 1340, 1350, 1360, 1370, 1380, 1390, 1400, 1410, 1420, 1430, 1440, 1450, 1460, 1470, 1480, 1490, 1500, 1510, 1520, 1530, 1540, 1550, 1560, 1570, 1580, 1590, 1600, 1610, 1620, 1630, 1640, 1650, 1660, 1670, 1680, 1690, 1700, 1710, 1720, 1730, 1740, 1750, 1760, 1770, 1780, 1790, 1800, 1810, 1820, 1830, 1840, 1850, 1860, 1870, 1880, 1890, 1900, 1910, 1920, 1930, 1940, 1950, 1960, 1970, 1980, 1990, 2000, 2010, 2020, 2030, 2040, 2050, 2060, 2070, 2080, 2090, 2100, 2110, 2120, 2130, 2140, 2150, 2160, 2170, 2180, 2190, 2200, 2210, 2220, 2230, 2240, 2250, 2260, 2270, 2280, 2290, 2300, 2310, 2320, 2330, 2340, 2350, 2360, 2370, 2380, 2390, 2400, 2410, 2420, 2430, 2440, 2450, 2460, 2470, 2480, 2490, 2500, 2510, 2520, 2530, 2540, 2550, 2560, 2570, 2580, 2590, 2600, 2610, 2620, 2630, 2640, 2650, 2660, 2670, 2680, 2690, 2700, 2710, 2720, 2730, 2740, 2750, 2760, 2770, 2780, 2790, 2800, 2810, 2820, 2830, 2840, 2850, 2860, 2870, 2880, 2890, 2900, 2910, 2920, 2930, 2940, 2950, 2960, 2970, 2980, 2990, 3000, 3010, 3020, 3030, 3040, 3050, 3060, 3070, 3080, 3090, 3100, 3110, 3120, 3130, 3140, 3150, 3160, 3170, 3180, 3190, 3200, 3210, 3220, 3230, 3240, 3250, 3260, 3270, 3280, 3290, 3300, 3310, 3320, 3330, 3340, 3350, 3360, 3370, 3380, 3390, 3400, 3410, 3420, 3430, 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12930, 12940, 12950, 12960, 12970, 12980, 12990, 13000, 13010, 13020, 13030, 13040, 13050, 13060, 13070, 13080, 13090, 13100, 13110, 13120, 13130, 13140, 13150, 13160, 13170, 13180, 13190, 13200, 13210, 13220, 13230, 13240, 13250, 13260, 13270, 13280, 13290, 13300, 13310, 13320, 13330, 13340, 13350, 13360, 13370, 13380, 13390, 13400, 13410, 13420, 13430, 13440, 13450, 13460, 13470, 13480, 13490, 13500, 13510, 13520,

Form of Pressure Distribution

The tests as far described have all been interception tests, carried out in the wind tunnel at a speed of 30 ft. per second. A further series of tests was carried out on several occasions, in which various β values were determined, whether the same effect could be obtained on a higher speed. The results in Fig. 20 indicate that an increase in the lift coefficient of approximately 40 per cent was obtained with a single slot, and that a correct β value could be obtained. The results obtained on a higher speed, clearly shows that with the pressure, lighter corrections the stated assumption tests can be applied to higher velocities.

Center of Pressure Tests

Several tests on the lift/drag coefficients for which have already been plotted in Fig. 20 were tested for the center of pressure movement, and the results are plotted in Fig. 21. At all angles above the center of gravity with the slot open in all cases, further back, but taking into account the decrease in lift with the slot open, with the slot open, for an α value (value of the lift coefficient) the difference is not great. The general result, however, at the center of pressure (the larger slightly below) that of the normal position is one that might be anticipated as the pressure is more evenly distributed over the whole plane, and therefore the lift portion is a greater lift. This means the result of the center of pressure to be further back.

In comparing on the tests carried out on this section the National Physical Laboratory reported as follows:

The high lift obtainable with the flap open is very noticeable, especially at small angles of attack. At the critical angle the C_p is at 0.996 (slight β flap open), which corresponds to the position of the C_p at about 5 deg. therefore with flaps closed. The longitudinal balance of the machine would be approximately the same when flaps of 5 deg. incidence or leading at 22 deg. incidence, a very similar characteristic. Slightly after the lift and drag are both considerable, but little after C_p is found.

Flap Experiments with Slotted Aircraft

An increase in the lift coefficient can be obtained by the use of a slot with flaps and by altering the angle of incidence of these flaps. A series of tests was carried out at the National Physical Laboratory in the apparatus described in the report 1913-14, pp. 113 to 120. The results have been plotted in Fig. 24 compared with aerodynamic tests with the slot open and the slot closed. The H. A. F. 15 curve shows the size of the various curves as indicated in Fig. 25 of the report referred to above. The maximum lift coefficient on a normal No. 22 is approximately 0.43, at speed 30 ft. per second, which is the value at this angle of 18 deg. The increase in lift coefficient by the use of flaps can be obtained with the slotted plane with the ordinary one. A series of tests was carried out in the wind tunnel in Fig. 25 and the results are plotted in Fig. 26. With the plane inclined at 15 deg. and 10 deg., a progressive increase in the lift coefficient is obtained, but at 20 deg. and 22 deg. the plane is inclined at the same angle, and increase in the lift results are somewhat smaller. Further experiments have determined that the rolling moments obtained with the alteration of the flap angle are of the same order as those on the plane of ordinary construction, indicating that full control can be obtained in the ordinary manner when the slot is open.

Reference has already been made to pressure distribution plotted on a slotted plane. These experiments were carried out on a normal No. 42, the basic F.A.F. 15 section with an extra wing area (Fig. 27). The results are shown in Fig. 28. The shape of the curve is very similar to that of the ordinary pressure plotting, except for the break in the curve where the slot is opened and the higher values in pressure obtained at the leading edge of the slot plane.

General Conclusions

The sound which has been given is one of progress in aerodynamic work on the subject. The experiments were carried out on tests that depending upon the slot shape, position,

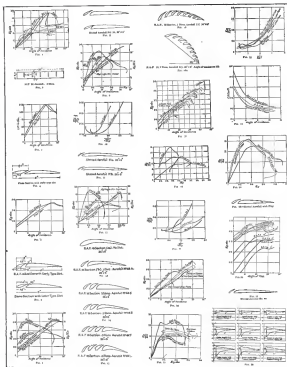
width, inclination, etc., an increase in lift coefficient of from 40 to 80 per cent can be obtained with one slot, and up to 200 to 300 per cent, with a multiplicity of slots. The drag coefficient is slightly increased on the slotted plane with the slot closed, compared with an unslotted plane of similar cross-section. The gap on the lower surface of the plane makes but little difference to the drag, but has disadvantages on the upper surface at an angle of attack by a large increase in the drag coefficient. With flaps fixed to work in, avoided the increase in lift coefficient can be obtained, so that the proper aerodynamic control is still available. This is a distinct advantage over the method of increasing the lift coefficient by alteration of the flap angle, due with the flap at an incidence angle on a normal control is possible. The center of pressure is shifted in all the cases at similar angles, or a plane of similar section, but modified. This result is evident from an examination of the pressure settings, which shows that the distribution of pressure on each of the smaller sections is similar, while similar to an ordinary section, the lift being more evenly distributed over the plane.

Causes of "Stalling"

If reference is made once more to Fig. 26, it will be seen that as the angle of incidence is increased, the pressure on the leading edge increases very rapidly. At 14 deg. the pressure surface on the upper surface of the plane reaches a value of 1.5 for both sides, and the pressure on the lower surface is reversed, the surface pressure increases more rapidly, reaching 1.05 at 18 deg. and 0.5 at 22 deg. At 18 deg. of incidence, pressure increases over the whole area at the front edge of the machine, reaching a value of 1.5. At very rapid pressure drop, the pressure on the sides reaches only reaching a value of 1.5. This very steep pressure production (the surface pressure is "stalling"), the maximum value of the pressure at 20 deg. being 1.5 to 1.75. The same type of results is found with an ordinary plane, except that the rapid rise in pressure at the leading edge would have taken place at smaller angles. To prevent "stalling" it is therefore necessary to ensure that the angle of the leading plane is also kept sufficiently small, so that a rapid increase in pressure is avoided, as has already been shown in the case of the H. A. F. 15 tests. It would appear that the rapid rise in pressure is due to observed velocity increase, with corresponding reduction of the free air stream, and that slightly further back on the plane the movement of the air is reduced, but is effective without setting up disturbances and the eddy effects known as "stalling".

Effect on Drag

The increase in lift coefficient possible with the slotted aircraft permits either of slower moving speeds than at present, or alternatively, of less power at top speed. The first is self-evident, the second requires some explanation. In an unslotted design with unslotted planes, the lift coefficient at top speed is usually less than that at which the maximum value of lift coefficient is reached. The leading edge maximum lift coefficient determines the value of the lift coefficient at top speed, the drag at this latter speed—excluding only resistance from the resistance of the air—being required to obtain this speed. With the slotted plane the same procedure may be adopted. The lift coefficient top speed can be shown with reference to the best lifting ratio of the plane, and the slow speed for slow speed, the pressure of the pressure surface of drag to give the required lift coefficient. At top speed it will therefore now be possible to work at lift coefficients between 2 and 5 instead of the lower values which call for the use of a section such as F.A.F. 15 with low values of drag at very small angles. The trend of design would therefore be toward the choice of sections with high lift ratios, rather than the high lift ratios of the ordinary type of values of the lift coefficient. It is, then, possible that as designed with their planes at normal cruising speed, set at angles of incidence where the lifting ratio is not less than 28 and perhaps as high as 32 or 33, a great economy will be effected in the horsepower that is required. Economy does not, however, rest with the plane alone, but it will be reflected in the efficiency of the engine, and it will be the duty of the designer to design the body structure of the airplane. It



Country Club's Field, thence to Fordham Field, and then returning to Bridgeport Field.

(a) Start

Starting signal will be given at 11:30 A. M. Airplanes to be in their allotted places on the Field at 10 A. M. Pilot's names for final instructions will be announced later.

(b) Position at Start

Planes competing for the ... Trophy will be sent away together in a flight, or series of flights dependent upon the number of entrants and the conditions of the race. However, any entrant will be permitted to start alone after all flights of this request is made to the Contest Committee in writing before September 30, 1921.

(c) Method of Race

The Starter will assign an assistant starter to each plane, who shall raise the signal flags to and for his pilot as follows: The starting signal (red means race) a red flag will be raised by the Chief Starter at 10:45 A. M. The assistant starter will raise the assistant starter assigned to that plane will raise the red starting flag. When all assistants have raised the red starting flags, not later than 11:30 A. M. the Starter will raise, in addition to the red starting flag, the white warning flag, which signifies that the airplane signal will be given in ten seconds, giving the maximum time to draw the flag from under the wheels. Such signal will be counted by lowering the red flag, the airplane signal being the lowering of both red and white flags. If any contestant has difficulty in starting his motor, his assistant starter will raise the red flag, but without the white warning flag. If the airplane signal will raise a blue flag, which is a signal for a deferred start. Deferred starts shall be granted without penalty, except that no pilots will be allowed to start after a delay of ten minutes. Any plane having one started, cannot move another start, however, it may complete the race, though deferred draws provided it can do so before 5:30 P. M.

(d) Finish

The finishing time will be taken when each plane crosses the finish line between the marks defining this line, after having completed the full course, approximately 264 miles.

(e) Prize

The winner of the first place in the race proper shall be the pilot who has completed the full course in the shortest elapsed time and around place, the second best time, etc., provided the pilot is not disqualified.

Qualifications

All pilots must hold an Aviator's license issued by the Federal Aviation Administration and duly entered upon the Government's Register of the Aero Club of America.

Rules of the Race

(a) Pilots must hold a straight course after starting, and then give the distance to be specified and marked.

(b) A plane overtaking a slower plane shall pass it on its outer side, in order that it may not in any way impede or interfere with a faster overtaking plane.

(c) A plane overtaking a slower plane shall never pass or attempt to pass between that plane and any other or captive balloon making a turning point.

(d) Pilots must allow the altitude of the captive balloon to be seen, and in passing shall do so to either side in order that the observers in the basket may clearly see the airplane's motor.

(e) Any pilot not having sufficient altitude upon reaching the balloons shall continue to climb, but must make a circle when passing the balloons, and must not cross the airplane will be headed in the line of flight of the course.

(f) All planes making turning points must be passed at an altitude not greater than 400 feet.

(g) After crossing the finishing line, all planes shall continue on their course until they have attained the altitude of 2,000 feet, then they may turn and return to the Field, and land in that part of the Field assigned for landing and in so doing shall not cross the course or finish line.

(h) Any contestant breaking any of the foregoing rules of the course, or subsequent one which may be officially announced in writing, shall upon recommendation of the judges, be disqualified.

Prizes

No protest shall be considered unless presented in writing to the Contest Committee of the Detroit Aviation Society, Inc., within twenty-four hours after the finish of the race.

Weather

Each airplane shall have a member assigned to it by the Contest Committee, stationed on the bottom surface of lower wing and on each side of the fuselage, close to the wing, a chronometer as large as possible. It shall have no other equipment or baggage over 12 pounds in weight.

No contestant shall be permitted to "drop" the fuel with pump and, other, or similar highly explosive liquids. Bomb and similar explosive fuels may be used.

Conditions of Trial

Trials for slow speed landing, take-off and greatest range of speed—also the examination for bonuses given for self-starting, fuel and endurance—oil, water, gas, flying time, drinking water, and flying systems, cooling, lubrication and distribution, will be conducted from August 21st to September 30th, 1921.

Any contestant failing to make these trials during the period shall, at the discretion of the Contest Committee, forfeit the rights to the points which he may have gained—except that the trials are made after the race.

The top and tank points are to be awarded on points given as follows:

(a) To the winner of the race proper ... 400 points. To those finishing within twenty minutes of the winner there will be a share of points on the basis of 30 points per minute.

(b) For the greatest range of speed ... 150 points.

The time to be figured by deducting the time it would take an airplane to fly one-quarter of the distance of the race at the fastest speed, (this to be determined in advance by trial flights in both directions over a measured course with thrust) from the time in which the airplane actually completed the race. To those coming within fifteen minutes of the speed range winner, there will be a share of points on the basis of 16.66 points per minute.

(c) For the shortest landing ... 100 points. To those finishing within 100 feet of the winner, their prize shall be a share of points on the basis of one point per foot.

(d) For the shortest race after landing ... 300 points. To those stopping within 300 feet of the winner, their prize shall be a share of points on the basis of 1 point per foot.

(e) A bonus of fifty points will be given to each airplane surviving an experience self-starting.

(f) A bonus of fifty points will be given to each airplane carrying a fuel tank which effectively shields the motor at a height of 3,000 feet, in aerial flight.

(g) A bonus of fifty points will be given to each airplane having completed the race in the following order: Spark plugs, oil, water, gas, flying time, drinking water, and flying systems, fuel tank and distribution.

Note that any airplane failing to complete the race is not entitled to the points for the range of speed, or the amount of reliability is embodied in this event.

In the event of a tie in the scores of two airplanes, the airplane having received the greatest number of points in the race will receive an extra point.

Score 1st Prize, See 2

Prize	Points
First Prize	1,500.00
Second Prize	750.00
Third Prize	250.00
Total	2,500.00

RACE FOR OBSERVATION TYPIC (2) PARACHUTE AIRPLANE

Conditions of Contest

(a) Factor of safety—monoplane—5 as loaded for start of race.

(b) Air speed greater than 30 miles per hour.

(c) Government specified load for this type of airplane.

Prizes

Approximately 264 miles, four times around a closed course of approximately 66 miles, starting at Bridgeport Field, passing over captive balloon located approximately 18 miles away

at approximately 6,000 feet altitude. Thence to Aviation Country Club's Field, thence to Fordham Field, and then returning to Bridgeport Field.

(a) Start

Starting signal will be given at 11 A. M. Airplanes to be in their allotted places on the Field at 10 A. M. Pilot's names for final instructions will be announced later.

(b) Position at Start

Planes competing for the ... Trophy will be sent away together in a flight, or series of flights dependent upon the number of entrants and the conditions at the time of start. However, any entrant will be permitted to start alone after all flights of this request is made to the Contest Committee in writing before September 30, 1921.

(c) Method of Start

The Starter will assign an assistant starter to each plane, who shall raise the signal flags to and for his pilot as follows: The starting signal (red means race) a red flag will be raised by the Chief Starter at 10:45 A. M. When the motor of each plane is started, the assistant starter assigned to that plane will raise the red starting flag. When all assistants have raised the red starting flags, not later than 11:30 A. M. the Starter will raise, in addition to the red starting flag, the white warning flag, which signifies that the airplane signal will be given in ten seconds, giving the maximum time to draw the flag from under the wheels.

Such signal will be counted by lowering the red flag, the airplane signal being the lowering of both red and white flags. If any contestant has difficulty in starting his motor, his assistant starter will raise the red flag, but without the white warning flag. If the airplane signal will raise a blue flag, which is a signal for a deferred start. Deferred starts shall be granted without penalty, except that no pilots will be allowed to start after a delay of ten minutes. Any plane having one started, cannot move another start; however, it may complete the race, though deferred draws, provided it can do so before 5:30 P. M.

The finishing time will be taken when each plane crosses the finish line between the marks indicating this line, after having completed the full course, approximately 264 miles.

Prizes

The winner of the first place in the race proper shall be the pilot who has completed the full course in the shortest elapsed time and around place, the second best time, etc., provided the pilot is not disqualified.

Qualifications

All pilots must hold an Aviator's license issued by the Federal Aviation Administration and duly entered upon the Government's Register of the Aero Club of America.

Rules of the Race

(a) Pilots must hold a straight course after starting, and then give the distance to be specified and marked.

(b) A plane overtaking a slower plane shall pass it on its outer side, in order that it may not in any way impede or interfere with a faster overtaking plane.

(c) A plane overtaking a slower plane shall never pass or attempt to pass between that plane and any other or captive balloon making a turning point.

(d) Pilots must allow the altitude of the captive balloon to be seen, and in passing shall do so to either side in order that the observers in the basket may clearly see the airplane's motor.

(e) Any pilot not having sufficient altitude upon reaching the balloons shall continue to climb, but must make a circle when passing the balloons, and must not cross the airplane will be headed in the line of flight of the course.

(f) All planes making turning points must be passed at an altitude not greater than 400 feet.

(g) After crossing the finishing line, all planes shall continue on their course until they have attained the altitude of 2,000 feet, then they may turn and return to the Field, and land in that part of the Field assigned for landing and in so doing shall not cross the course or finish line.

(h) Any contestant breaking any of the foregoing rules of the course, or subsequent one which may be officially announced in writing, shall upon recommendation of the judges, be disqualified.

Prizes

No protest shall be considered unless presented in writing to the Contest Committee of the Detroit Aviation Society,

Inc., within twenty-four hours after the finish of the race.

Each airplane shall have a member assigned to it by the Contest Committee, stationed on the bottom surface of lower wing and on each side of the fuselage, close to the wing, a chronometer as large as possible. It shall have no other equipment or baggage over 12 pounds in weight.

No contestant shall be permitted to "drop" the fuel with pump and, other, or similar highly explosive liquids. Bomb and similar explosive fuels may be used.

Conditions of Trial

Trials for slow speed landing, shortest take-off and greatest range of speed will be conducted from August 21st to September 30th, 1921.

Any contestant failing to make these trials during this period shall, at the discretion of the Contest Committee, forfeit the rights to the points which he may have gained—except that the trials are made after the race.

The top and tank points are to be awarded for points given as follows:

(a) To the winner of the race proper ... 450 points. To those finishing within twenty minutes of the winner there will be a share of points on the basis of 30 points per minute.

(b) For the greatest range of speed ... 250 points. The time to be figured by deducting the time it would take an airplane to fly one-quarter of the distance of the race at its slowest speed (this to be determined in advance by trial flights in both directions over a measured course with thrust) from the time in which the airplane actually completed the race. To those coming within fifteen minutes of the speed range winner, their prize shall be a share of points on the basis of 16.66 points per minute.

(c) For the shortest landing ... 100 points. To those finishing within 100 feet of the winner, their prize shall be a share of points on the basis of one point per foot.

(d) For the shortest race after landing ... 300 points. To those stopping within 300 feet of the winner, their prize shall be a share of points on the basis of 1 point per foot.

(e) A bonus of fifty points will be given to each airplane surviving an experience self-starting.

(f) A bonus of fifty points will be given to each airplane carrying a fuel tank which effectively shields the motor at a height of 3,000 feet, in aerial flight.

(g) A bonus of fifty points will be given to each airplane having completed the race in the following order: Spark plugs, oil, water, gas, flying time, drinking water, and flying systems, fuel tank and distribution.

Note that any airplane failing to complete the race is not entitled to the points for the range of speed, or the amount of reliability is embodied in this event.

In the event of a tie in the scores of two airplanes, the airplane having received the greatest number of points in the race will receive an extra point.

Score 1st Prize, See 12

Prize	Points
First Prize	1,500.00
Second Prize	750.00
Third Prize	250.00
Total	2,500.00

RACE FOR OBSERVATION TYPIC (2) PARACHUTE AIRPLANE

Conditions of Contest

(a) Factor of safety—monoplane—5 as loaded for start of race.

(b) Air speed greater than 30 miles per hour, as loaded for start of race.

(c) Government specified load for this type of airplane.

Prizes

Approximately 264 miles, four times around a closed course of 66 miles, starting at Bridgeport Field, thence west to capture balloon, thence to Fordham Field and return to Bridgeport Field.

The starting signal will be given at 11 A. M. Airplanes to be in their allotted places on the Field at 10 A. M. Pilot's names for final instructions will be announced later.

(b) Position at Start

Planes competing for Peabody Trophy will be sent away

(c) Method of Start

Starting time will be taken when plane crosses starting line between marks defining this line.

(d) No constant start start before he reaches the gateway signal.

(e) Any moment, having once started, cannot reverse another start. However, he may complete the race, if forced down, provided he can do so before 3 P. M.

The Finish

The finishing time will be taken when each plane crosses the finish line between the marks defining this line, after having completed the full course of approximately 500 miles.

Winner

The winner of the first place shall be the pilot who has completed the full course in the shortest elapsed time, and second place, the second best time, etc. provided the pilot is not disqualified.

Qualification

All pilots must hold an Aviator's license issued by the Federal Aviation Administration, International and duly retained upon the Comptroller's Register of the Aero Club of America.

Rules of the Race

(a) Pilots must hold a straight course after starting, until they have gone the distance to be specified and marked.

(b) A plane overtakes and a driver plane shall never pass or attempt to pass between that plane and any pilot or capture balloon marking a turning point.

(c) After crossing the finishing line, all planes shall continue on their course until they have attained the altitude of 2,000 feet, then they may turn and return to the field, and land in that part of the field assigned for landing and in so doing shall not cross the course or finish line.

(d) Pilots shall pass all turning points in plain view of the observing officials stationed at each turning point and at an altitude of not over 500 feet.

Any constant breaking any of the foregoing rules of the race or subsequent one which may be officially announced in writing, shall, upon recommendation of the judges be disqualified.

Prize

No protest shall be considered unless presented in writing to the Contest Committee of the Denver Aviation Society, Inc., within twenty-four hours after the finish of the race.

Weather

Each airplane shall have the number assigned to it by the Contest Committee, painted on the bottom surface of lower wing and on each side of the fuselage, also of the vertical fin, in characters as large as possible. It shall not have other numbering or lettering over 12 inches in height.

All airplanes may compete with (1)st only.

No contestant shall be permitted to "dog" the field with poor and, other, or similar highly objectionable lapses. Bored and under no-load fuels may be used.

Tension of Wing Trusses at Diving Speeds

N. A. C. A. Report No. 194

It is the purpose of this report to indicate what effect the deflection of a typical light wing truss will have upon the load distribution. The case of high angle of incidence may be discussed incidentally from consideration as the loads on the front and rear trusses are usually balanced, and consequently there will be little sagging distortion. A great sagging distortion will have the maximum effect upon load distribution in the region of the angle of attack, because the slope of the lift curve is highest here, and it is here that the greatest aerodynamic lift occurs, hence the load on the front truss also downward while the load on the rear truss acts upward.

The NACA 15 model was chosen as most typical of present day wing sections for an illustrative example. This was combined with J-14 wing truss, a biplane with overhanging upper wings. Studying with the assumption of a loading for a rapid decrease the wing truss and the deflection was indicated. The loading for the deflection was based upon the deflections as determined by the first

trial. After several approximations it was possible to compute accurately the sagging distortion of each panel point.

It was found that on great sagging distortion, several panel points where there was adequate sagging bending by that it was considerable at the tip of the overhanging portion of the lower wing. In conclusion, it may be said that the load is not worth the added complication to construct the load distribution on the conventional biplane for wing truss distortion but that it would be highly advisable in the case of a monoplane, where the center of the lift truss acts on a wing with the upper and where there can be nothing to take the place of sagging bending. It would also be advisable in the case of the extremely loaded wing where the relative deflection is likely to be high.

A copy of report No. 194 may be obtained from the National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics, Washington, D. C., upon request.

Effect of Varying the Number of Plies in Plywood

In making up plywood for a particular use the question of plys to use, should there plys or more than three to use to obtain the required thickness. Some data from tests by the U. S. Forest Products Laboratory may be of assistance in answering this question.

An increase in the number of plies results in a decrease in the side and bending strength parallel to the grain of the face and an increase in the corresponding strength at right angles to the grain of the face.

If the more bending or tensile strength is desired in the face, you should use parallel to the grain of the face the greater number of plies the more nearly the desired result is obtained. It must be borne in mind, however, that plywood with a large number of plies, while stronger at right angles to the grain of the face, may not be so strong parallel to the grain of the face as three-ply wood, and hence a through panel is probably where greater strength is desired in no direction than in the other.

Where great resistance to splitting is necessary, as in plywood that is stressed along the edges with screws and bolts and is subjected to forces through the fastenings, a large number of plies affords a better fastening.

It is common experience that a glued joint is more likely to fail when thick laminations are glued with the grain crossed than when thin laminations are glued. The same reason exists in plywood when thick plies are glued together. When plywood is subjected to moisture absorption, stresses in the glue joint due to shrinkage are greater for the thick plies than for the thin plies. Hence in plywood constructed with more than three the glue joints will not be so likely to fail as in plywood constructed with a smaller number of thin plies.—Technical Note No. 335, Forest Products Laboratory.

Air Service Reorganization Policy

Congress was unanimously notified by the War Department on March 3 that the size of the Air Service and its number of its various units were so substantial as to compel that the National Guard and the Organized Reserves be considered with the Regular Army in order to secure coordinated effort in the organization and operation of the Air Service as a whole. Emergency and efficiency, says a War Department statement, issued at the direction of Secretary Baker, make it desirable to have to the Air Service, only one system of organization, supply depots and repair depots for the three components of the Air Service, viz., the Regular Army, the National Guard and the Organized Reserves. A plan for the distribution and formation of Air Service units for the three component parts to use in preparation and will be used now to serve as a guide. While the location of the National Guard units within a given state is, by law, as of June 1, 1920, vested in the state, the War Department desires that the boards of officers appointed to handle these units give careful consideration to the coordination plan referred to and might refer to the knowledge therein given as far as is compatible with local and other conditions within the state.

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INDEX TO ADVERTISERS

A	
Aircraft Service Directory.....	446
B	
Barker, Frederick W.	443
Bethlehem Aircraft Corp.	445
Brewster-Goldsmith Corp.	444
Buerg Airplane Co.	434
C	
Curtis Aeroplane & Motor Corp.	444
D	
Daguerre Wright Co.	438
Duggan, Ralph G. Co.	443
E	
Emule Aircraft Corp.	443
F	
Fairchild Aircraft Co.	444
Fleet Insurance Co.	447
Ford, Raymond M.	443
Fuller & Co., Inc.	442
G	
Garrett, E. M., Aeroplane Co.	442
H	
Hawthorne Aircraft Association.	443
Hawthorne, The Ohio L. Co.	442
Henderson Motor Car Co.	445
I	
Philadelphia Aero-School Corp.	444
Patent Instrument Co.	435
J	
Johnson, John A. Son. Co.	446
K	
Kelley Laboratory Supply Co.	443
L	
Leahey-Morse Aircraft Corp.	431
M	
Wellington Sears & Co.	446
Wheeler Aircraft Corp.	447
Wright Aeronautical Corp.	439



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